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2 **Simulating climate warming scenarios with intentionally biased**
3 **bootstrapping and its implications for precipitation**

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Abstract

30 The outputs from GCMs provide useful information about the rate and magnitude of future climate
31 change. The temperature variable is the most reliable of the GCM outputs. However, hydrological
32 variables (e.g., precipitation) from GCM outputs for future climate change possess an uncertainty
33 that is too high for practical use. Therefore, a method, called intentionally biased bootstrapping
34 (IBB), that simulates the increase of the temperature variable by a certain level as ascertained from
35 observed global warming data is proposed. In addition, precipitation data was resampled by
36 employing a block-wise sampling technique associated with the temperature simulation. In
37 summary, a warming temperature scenario is simulated and the corresponding precipitation values
38 whose time indices are the same as the one of the simulated warming temperature scenario. The
39 proposed method was validated with annual precipitation data by truncating the recent years of the
40 record. The proposed model was also employed to assess the future changes in seasonal
41 precipitation in South Korea within a global warming scenario as well as in weekly time scale. The
42 results illustrate that the proposed method is a good alternative for assessing the variation of
43 hydrological variables such as precipitation under the warming condition.

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45



46 **1. Introduction**

47 The complex influence of human actions on the climate system is well represented through global
48 climate models (GCMs). A number of GCMs demonstrate variations in the large-scale atmospheric
49 circulation and related changes in hydrometeorological variables (Allen and Ingram, 2002; Held
50 and Soden, 2006; Lenderink and Van Meijgaard, 2008). It has been generally accepted that to
51 quantify the range of possible changes in the hydrological cycle (such as precipitation and
52 evaporation) is harder than in temperature (Allen and Ingram, 2002). Furthermore, hydrological
53 variables vary much more in space and time than temperature and difficult to correctly simulate.

54 The relationship between temperature and precipitation has been studied in literature in order
55 to predict the future variations of precipitation under the global warming condition. From the
56 Clausius-Clapeyron (C-C) relation, saturation vapor pressure increases by 6-7% for each 1°C
57 increase in temperature and rainfall intensity should also increase at the same rate with warming
58 (Trenberth and Shea, 2005). Lenderink and Van Meijgaard (2008) presented that 1hour intensity
59 of precipitation exhibit a C-C relation for summer while showing super C-C scaling for winter.

60 These relations are only focused on very short time scale (not more than daily) or generally
61 retrieved from GCM outputs. The behavior of mean precipitation over long-term period such as
62 months and seasons is difficult to predict as temperature increases. It might be beneficial if one
63 could derive the behavior of long-term mean precipitation under warming condition or the range
64 of possible changes.

65 Therefore, a simple method that simulates temperature from observed data is proposed in the
66 current study while increasing temperature up to a certain level as a warming scenario. In addition,
67 precipitation is simulated by employing a block-wise resampling technique (Srinivas and



68 Srinivasan, 2000) associated with the temperature simulation. The resampled covariate,
69 precipitation, forcing the warming condition in a certain level is obtained from the simulation. The
70 proposed approach allows assessing the impact of precipitation as temperature increases with a
71 current climate horizon.

72 The paper is organized as follows. In the next section, the fundamental mathematical
73 background related to bias bootstrapping modeling is presented. The employed data and
74 application methodology are described in section 3. The validation study of the proposed IBB
75 approach is shown in section 4. The results assessing the long-term evolution of seasonal
76 precipitation with simulating weekly temperature and precipitation data are illustrated in section
77 5. Finally, the summary and conclusions are presented in section 6.

78 **2. Methodology**

79 In order to simulate warming scenario, i.e. increasing mean temperature, up to a certain level, the
80 observed data must be sampled with different combination. Intuitively, warmer temperature
81 values are more likely to be resampled among the observations if the mean is increased. Therefore,
82 the proposed method in the current study is to resample the observed data by fixing the mean
83 temperature increment in the resampled dataset by weighting the probability of selection according
84 to its magnitude (see Figure 1). In addition, the block bootstrapping with precipitation was
85 employed to assess the changes in these variables as temperature increases.

86 **2.1. Intentionally Biased Bootstrapping (IBB)**

87 Bootstrapping (also known as resampling from observed data with replacement) is a statistical
88 method for creating replica datasets from the original data to assess the variability of the quantities
89 of interest without analytical calculation (Davison and Hinkley, 1997; Davison et al., 2003; Ouarda



90 and Ashkar, 1995). This bootstrapping technique has been extended to simulate time series of
91 hydrometeorological variables (Beersma and Buishand, 2003; Lall et al., 1996; Lall and Sharma,
92 1996; Lee and Ouarda, 2011, 2010; Mehrotra and Sharma, 2005). In the current study, the
93 intentionally bias bootstrapping (**IBB**) technique is employed so that the mean of the resampled
94 datasets are varied as needed to simulate a global warming scenario.

95 IBB was proposed by Hall and Presnell (1999) as a class of weighted bootstrapping
96 techniques in order to reduce bias or variance as well as to render some characteristic equal to a
97 predetermined quantity. A good example of IBB is the adjustment of Nadaraya-Watson kernel
98 estimators to make them competitive with local linear smoothing(Cai, 2001). In the current study,
99 IBB was employed to simulate the temperature data from observation by bootstrapping under the
100 constraint of increasing mean value, which indicates warming. The conceptual background of IBB
101 has been employed to simulate future climates of weather analogs (Orlowsky et al., 2010;
102 Orlowsky et al., 2008). In the current study, a IBB method with easy manipulation to simulate
103 increased temperature data is proposed. The mathematical description of the proposed IBB method
104 is the following.

105 Among an n number of observations x_i , where $i=1,\dots,n$, assume resampling the
106 observations with replacement (i.e. bootstrapping) by increasing the mean of the simulated data
107 by as much as Δ_μ ; this implies that higher values have a higher probability of being resampled
108 and lower values have lower selection probability. This IBB can be achieved by assigning different
109 weights $S_{i,n}$ according to the magnitudes of the observations as

$$110 \quad S_{i,n} = i/n \quad (1)$$



111 Note that this assigned weight $S_{i,n}$ plays a role in the selection probability for the observed data in
 112 the IBB procedure after scaling and adjusting it.

113 The mean of the resampled data is

$$114 \quad \tilde{\mu} = \frac{1}{\Psi} \sum_{i=1}^n S_{i,n} x_{(i)} \quad (2)$$

115 where $x_{(i)}$ represents the i^{th} increasing ordered value and $\Psi = \sum_{i=1}^n S_{i,n}$. The amount of the mean
 116 increase δ_{μ} is

$$117 \quad \delta_{\mu} = \tilde{\mu} - \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{\Psi} \sum_{i=1}^n S_{i,n} x_{(i)} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \quad (3)$$

118 To obtain different values of δ_{μ} , the weights can be generalized with the weight order (r) as

$$119 \quad \tilde{\mu}(r) = \frac{1}{\Psi_r} \sum_{i=1}^n S_{i,n}^r x_{(i)} \quad (4)$$

120 where $\Psi_r = \sum_{i=1}^n S_{i,n}^r$. The difference is

$$121 \quad \delta_{\mu}(r) = \tilde{\mu}(r) - \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{\Psi_r} \sum_{j=1}^n S_{j,n}^r x_{(j)} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \quad (5)$$

122 Once the magnitude of the mean increase is given (e.g., temperature increase) as Δ_{μ} , the weight
 123 order ' r ' is estimated accordingly. For example, when the temperature change is obtained from
 124 the GCM outputs and this change is supposed to be propagated into a specific location and a finer



125 time scale, the selection of the weight order can be performed using a meta-heuristic optimization
126 technique with the objective function as

127
$$\text{Minimize } [\Delta_{\mu} - \delta_{\mu}(r)]^2 \quad (6)$$

128 In the current study, the harmony search (HS) was used for the meta-heuristic optimization. The
129 performance of the HS in hydrological applications is well reviewed in the literature (Geem et al.,
130 2001; Lee and Geem, 2005, 2004; Lee and Jeong, 2014a; Mahdavi et al., 2007; Yoon et al., 2013a).
131 Note that if $r > 0$, then $\delta_{\mu}(r) > 0$, which implies a global warming scenario; if $r < 0$, then
132 $\delta_{\mu}(r) < 0$, which implies a global cooling scenario. When $r < 0$, lower values are resampled more
133 frequently than are higher values. causing the mean of the resampled data to decrease. Furthermore,
134 if r goes to infinity then the maximum of the observations is always selected, and if r goes to
135 negative infinity, only the minimum is chosen.

136 In the IBB procedure, the adjusted scaled weight $\eta_i = S_{i,n}^r / \Psi_r$ is the probability that each i^{th}
137 data point is subject to be selected. In the case of $n=30$, the weights for $i=1, \dots, n$ are shown in
138 Figure 2 with the weight order of $r=0.5$. The figure presents that the probability of being selected
139 (i.e., η_i) is between approximately 0.01 for the lowest values and 0.05 for the highest order values
140 of approximately 0.05 to lead positive bias in the resampled data (e.g., 1.0°C increase). For
141 example, if the number of the simulation is 100 and $\eta_i=0.05$, then the data point will be selected
142 5 times. A different probability implies a different number of selection for each data point.
143 Subsequently, a different number of selections may lead to variation changes, called variance
144 reduction or inflation. This issue is dealt with in the following section.



145 **2.2. Variance reduction and inflation**

146 Because of the biased selection of higher values, the variance of the resampled data results is
 147 reduced (Lee and Jeong, 2014a; Lee and Ouarda, 2010; Lee et al., 2010a; Salas and Lee, 2010;
 148 Sharif and Burn, 2006). The estimated variance of the simulated data with IBB is

149
$$\tilde{\sigma}^2(r) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{S_{j,n}^r}{\Psi_r} x_{(j)}^2 - \tilde{\mu}^2 \quad (7)$$

150 Note that the variance in Eq. (7) is based on $\sigma^2 = E(X^2) - (EX)^2$. The difference of the variance
 151 is

152
$$\delta_{\sigma^2}(r) = \hat{\sigma}^2 - \tilde{\sigma}^2(r) \quad (8)$$

153 where $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is the sample variance of the observed data. To overcome the reduction of the variance
 154 in IBB, a random perturbation can be applied to the resampled data X_R as

155
$$X_R^* = X_R + \sqrt{\delta_{\sigma^2}(r)} \varepsilon \quad (9)$$

156 where ε is a random variable with a normal distribution $N(0,1)$. Subsequently, the mean and
 157 variance of the perturbed data are

158
$$\hat{\mu}_{R^*} = \tilde{\mu} \quad (10)$$

159
$$\hat{\sigma}_{R^*}^2 = \tilde{\sigma}^2 + \delta_{\sigma^2}(r) = \tilde{\sigma}^2 + \hat{\sigma}^2 - \tilde{\sigma}^2(r) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \quad (11)$$

160 **2.3. Block bootstrapping**

161 When the temperature presumably increases by a certain degree, it is interesting to note how the
 162 other weather variables vary. For example, if the temperature is increased by 1°C, the greatest



163 concern in climate research will be how the precipitation will change. To address this question,
164 the block bootstrapping technique for the precipitation variable is adapted (Carlstein et al., 1998;
165 Lee et al., 2010b). Once the temperature is resampled from the observed data at certain times using
166 IBB, the observed precipitation data from the same time are considered (see Figure 2). Unlike for
167 the case of temperature, there is no variance reduction in the resampled precipitation data because
168 the precipitation data are not conditionally resampled. This block bootstrapping technique is
169 popularly employed in multivariate weather simulations (Lee and Jeong, 2014b; Lee et al., 2012)..

170 **2.4. Overall Simulation Procedure**

171 The overall simulation procedure of temperature and precipitation data is described in this section.
172 Simple schematic presentation of the procedure is shown in Figure 1.

173 Let x_i, y_i ($i=1, \dots, n$) be the observed temperature and precipitation data, respectively. Suppose that
174 the simulation length is the same as the record length (i.e. n) and 100 series need to be simulated.

175 (a) Assume that the increased overall temperature mean is known as Δ_μ .

176 (b) Estimate the weight order (r) from meta-heuristic algorithm (here, Harmony Search) with
177 the objective function of Eq.(6) from the observed temperature data.

178 (c) Resample the temperature data from the observations with the probability of $S_{i,n}^r$ for i^{th}
179 largest data ($i=1, \dots, n$).

180 (d) Assume that k^{th} largest temperature data $x_{(k)}$ is resampled from step (3) and its
181 corresponding time index of (k) is ' j '. Note that (k) indicates the k^{th} largest value and j



182 indicates the j^{th} time-index value. Then, j^{th} precipitation data, y_j , is resampled
183 simultaneously.

184 (e) Apply Eq.(9) to the resampled temperature data from step(3) (say, $x_{(k)} + \sqrt{\delta_{\sigma^2}(r)}\varepsilon$), if the
185 variance inflation is chosen.

186 Note that the current procedure is explained for the case of no seasonal variability due to
187 simplicity. In other words, the explained procedure above must be applied at each week or each
188 month for weekly or monthly data. The detailed description of the proposed method for the case
189 of monthly precipitation data with the full record is provided in the supplementary material
190 (Supplement A).

191 **3. Data description and application methodology**

192 In the current study, weather stations that record temperature and precipitation in South
193 Korea (74 locations) and that are managed by the Korea Meteorological Administration (KMA)
194 were employed. South Korea is located in Far East Asia and has a mean annual precipitation of
195 1283 mm. This country is climatologically influenced by the Siberian air mass during winter and
196 the Maritime Pacific High during summer. Most of the annual precipitation in South Korea falls
197 during the rainy season from June to September due to the occurrence of tropical cyclones,
198 extratropical cyclones, fronts and other weather systems. Because the orographic area in South
199 Korea is heterogeneous and large, the rainfall in South Korea has large spatial and temporal
200 variability (Park et al., 2007; Yoon et al., 2013b). The water resource control system, including
201 climate change, is an important aspect of this study due to the seasonal and spatial variability of
202 rainfall in this country.



203 Datasets shorter than 30 years of data were excluded, after which a total of 54 datasets were
204 employed. The data were extracted from the KMA website (<http://www.kma.go.kr/>). Most of the
205 time spans are approximately 33 years, from 1976 to 2008.

206 The validation study was performed with annual dataset to present the performance of the
207 proposed model with truncating recent years as 1994-2008. The truncated data was not used in
208 simulation but employed in comparison. Also, a case study was applied with the weekly dataset of
209 the 54 stations in South Korea. In the application study of the proposed IBB procedure in section
210 5, (1) 0.5°C and 1.0°C increases in the mean weekly temperature were assumed; (2) weekly
211 temperature datasets were simulated using the assumed temperature increase; (3) weekly
212 precipitation datasets were also simulated along with the weekly temperature dataset as a block.
213 Note that the simulation does include not a gradual change, such as a trend, but the overall mean
214 change. We simulated the weekly time scale so that the data spanned a long enough period to
215 provide a summary of weather statistics and a short enough period to reflect the temporal
216 variability. Furthermore, the observed weekly datasets of temperature and precipitation were
217 aggregated into seasonal time scale data, and the aggregated seasonal data were used to present
218 the seasonal variations in precipitation as temperature increases.

219 Note that although we simulated the temperature with a specific condition of increase (e.g.
220 +0.5°C or +1.0°C), no such restriction was placed on the precipitation, allowing one to determine
221 whether there is any change in precipitation with the condition of increasing temperature. One
222 hundred series were simulated with the same time span as the observations.



223 **4. Validating IBB model with annual data**

224 To further obtain the credibility of the proposed IBB model, we validated the model with truncating
225 the last 15 years (1994-2008) of the annual mean temperature and precipitation data over South
226 Korea. The last truncated 15 years were set as the validation period while the rest of the preceding
227 years as the test period. The dataset of the test period was employed in simulation while the dataset
228 of the validation period is only used in comparison to check how much the proposed model
229 performs. Among others, annual scale data is employed to easily illustrate the performance of the
230 proposed IBB model. At first, some mathematical terms need to be defined to explain the
231 validation procedure as follows.

$$232 \quad D\mu_p^{obs} = \mu\varphi_V - \mu\varphi_T \quad (12)$$

$$233 \quad D\mu_p^{IBB} = \mu\varphi_{IBB} - \mu\varphi_T \quad (13)$$

234 where $\mu\varphi_V$ and $\mu\varphi_T$ are the mean annual precipitation over the validation years and over the test
235 period, respectively, while $\mu\varphi_{IBB}$ is the annual mean precipitation of the IBB simulated data with
236 the record length of the validation years. The same denotation as the precipitation variable is taken
237 for the temperature variable as μT_V , μT_T , μT_{IBB} , $D\mu_T^{obs}$, and $D\mu_T^{IBB}$.

238 The validation procedure is (1) to truncate the 15 years (1994-2008) of annual temperature
239 and precipitation for each station; (2) to estimate the mean differences of the annual temperature
240 and precipitation between the validation period (1994-2008) and the test period (1976-1993),
241 $D\mu_T^{obs}$ and $D\mu_p^{obs}$, respectively; (3) to perform the IBB simulation with the annual precipitation and
242 temperature of the test period conditioned on the estimated mean differences of the temperature



243 between two periods (i.e. $D\mu_T^{obs}$) for each station; and (4) to compare the estimated mean
244 differences of the observed precipitation (i.e. $D\mu_p^{obs}$) with the mean differences between the IBB
245 simulated precipitation and the precipitation for the test period (i.e. $D\mu_p^{IBB}$).

246 The annual mean temperature differences between the validation period and the test period
247 at each station is presented in Figure 3 for the IBB simulated data ($D\mu_T^{IBB}$, boxplot) and the
248 observed data ($D\mu_T^{obs}$, circle). The figure indicates that the IBB model fairly well simulates the
249 temperature data as much as it was intended, except few stations that shows high increase
250 especially with more than one-degree increase (e.g. stations 6 and 7). Note that the employed test
251 period is relatively short and not enough number of high values of annual temperature is included
252 during the test period and this might result the underestimation of the intended temperature
253 increase.

254 In Figure 4, the annual mean precipitation of the observation over the validation period (μp_V ,
255 filled blue circle) and the test period (μp_T , filled red triangle) as well as the IBB simulation (μp_{IBB} ,
256 boxplot) is illustrated. The result indicates that the observed mean precipitation over the validation
257 period (μp_V) presents higher than the mean for the test period (μp_T) in most of the stations. The
258 IBB simulated data reflects this tendency showing higher mean precipitation than the mean
259 precipitation of the test period though its magnitude shows some difference.

260 The mean of the observed annual precipitation for the validation period at each station and
261 the mean of one hundred IBB simulated data is presented in Figure 5. The top panel presents that
262 the simulated data fairly well reproduce the observed mean of annual precipitation for the
263 validation period (1994-2008). The observed mean difference ($D\mu_p^{obs}$) of the annual precipitation



264 between the test period (1976-1993) and the validation period shown at the bottom panel of Figure
265 5 fairly matches with the one of the IBB simulated data ($D\mu_p^{IBB}$). Rather high variability at the
266 difference is inevitable due to relatively small record length for both the test period and the
267 validation period. Overall, the validation study implicates that the proposed IBB approach can
268 simulate the future evolution of annual precipitation over South Korea.

269 In Figure 6, the spatial distribution of the differences for the annual mean precipitation is
270 presented with the observed data (i.e. $D\mu_p^{obs}$) and with the IBB simulated data ($D\mu_p^{IBB}$). High
271 increase of annual mean precipitation in the north and south part of the country and small increase
272 and slight decrease in the south part shown in the observed data (left panel) is well reflected in the
273 IBB simulated data (right panel) except that the increase is shown from the IBB simulated data
274 (right panel) in the left south part of the country is not shown in the observed data. Overall, the
275 figure indicates that the spatial pattern of the annual mean precipitation difference from the
276 observed data (see the left panel) is similar to the one from the IBB simulated data (see the right
277 panel).

278 **5. Precipitation changes according to assumed temperature increase**

279 Figure 7 shows the results of the fitted IBB model for the Buan station, located at 35° 44' N and
280 126° 43' E. The top panel (Figure 7(a)) shows the estimated weight order of each week for the
281 mean temperature data employing the HS meta-heuristic algorithm with the objective function of
282 Eq. (6) while assuming a 0.5°C increase. The estimated values range from 0.2 to 1.3. The mean
283 and standard deviation of the observed and theoretical results (see Eqs. (2) and (7)) with a 0.5°C
284 mean increase are shown in Figure 7(b) and (c), respectively. The predominant annual cycle of the



285 mean weekly temperature is seen in the mean statistics, as shown in Figure 7(b), while the annual
286 cycle of the standard deviation (equivalent to the square root of variance) is not as prominent as
287 the annual cycle of the mean (see Figure 7(c)). Note that the weight order and the standard
288 deviation (see Figure 7(a) and (c)) are highly negatively correlated. In other words, when the
289 standard deviation is small (e.g., at approximately the 23rd week), the weight order is high and vice
290 versa. This result is intuitive in that if the variance is great, the corresponding temperature values
291 differ greatly from each other. Subsequently, the weights of the large values to be selected are not
292 necessarily much different from the weights of the low values in such a case, which induces a low
293 weight order. In Figure 7(c), the variance difference between the observed and theoretical data, as
294 defined in Eq. (8), is shown with a dotted line. This variance difference is inflated to the resampled
295 data, as in Eq. (9). This inflation procedure is optional in assessing the overall trend of annual
296 mean precipitation data regarding climate warming scenarios. However, it might be helpful when
297 the purpose of the study is to evaluate an overall variation of extreme precipitation statistics.

298 The statistics of the simulated data from IBB with the condition of a 0.5°C degree mean
299 temperature increase are shown as a boxplot in Figure 8; the statistics of the observed data are
300 shown in the same figure with dotted lines and cross marks. The mean increases by exactly 0.5°C,
301 as intended, and the standard deviation (square root of variance) is well preserved through the
302 variance inflation process (see Eq. (8)). The minima and maxima of the mean weekly temperatures
303 are increased.

304 Shown in Figure 9(a) are the mean differences between the simulated and observed weekly
305 precipitation with the conditions of 0.5°C and 1.0°C increases at the Buan station. The differences



306 are not significant at the 5% level. However, the mean differences are continuously positive from
307 the 30th to 40th week, which is during the summer season. This result indicates that a seasonal
308 effect on the precipitation change must exist. Therefore, we also extended our study to a seasonal
309 time scale. The mean precipitation differences of all 54 stations are shown for 0.5°C and 1.0°C
310 increases in Figure 9(b) and (c), respectively. Both plots show a decrease in autumn and increases
311 in the other seasons.

312 For a 1.0°C temperature increase, 61%, 24%, and 45% of the employed stations show a
313 significant increase in mean precipitation for the winter, spring, and summer seasons, respectively.
314 In contrast, the mean temperature decreases during the autumn season. Approximately 30% of the
315 stations experience a significant change in the mean precipitation at the 5% level given a 1.0°C
316 temperature increase. The detailed information is provided in Table 1.

317 The spatial distribution of seasonal mean precipitation differences is presented in Figure 10
318 given the condition of a 1°C temperature increase. An increasing pattern of precipitation during
319 winter (see Figure 10(a)) can be seen over the South Korea peninsula. Notably, the eastern and
320 southern coastal areas undergo a significant increase with a 95% confidence interval (± 5.38). Note
321 that the significance interval at each station is different because the variances between stations are
322 different. The detailed significance interval for each station is provided in Table 2. During spring
323 (see Figure 10(b)), the northern part of the country shows an increasing pattern while the
324 southwestern and southeastern parts show decreasing patterns, but their magnitudes are not
325 significant (± 15.04). The summer precipitation (see Figure 10(c)) undergoes a significant increase
326 in the southwest area of the country (± 29.94). In contrast to the other seasons, a significant decrease



327 in mean precipitation occurs during autumn (see Figure 10(d)) throughout the country, especially
328 over the eastern coastal area. The same spatial pattern of seasonal mean precipitation can be
329 observed given the condition of a 0.5°C temperature increase, as in the case of a 1.0°C temperature
330 increase, with little significant change (see Figure 11).

331 The spatial distributions of seasonal precipitation changes seem to be related to the flow
332 direction of the seasonal air mass. In South Korea, winter is influenced primarily by the Siberian
333 air mass with prevailing northwesterly winds, while summer is hot and humid with southeasterly
334 winds.

335 **6. Summary and Conclusions**

336 A simple method is proposed (1) to simulate precipitation given the condition of a mean
337 temperature increase derived from the observations and (2) to address the problem of how the
338 precipitation vary while the temperature is increased through global warming. The results
339 illustrated that a simple IBB technique for the temperature variable incorporating block sampling
340 of precipitation can achieve this objective.

341 The presented technique is valuable because hydrometeorological variables such as
342 precipitation and discharge are difficult to model with current GCMs, while the temperature
343 prediction is relatively accurate. The proposed method can be extended to other
344 hydrometeorological variables as well as other applications, including studies at the global scale.
345 The limit of the proposed method is that the temperature increase is limited since employed data
346 is observational. One possibility for allowing a greater temperature increase than that from the
347 observations is to include neighboring, similar stations or seasons. The author believes that the



348 proposed model can be a good surrogate or competitor in GCM-based climate change impact
349 assessments of hydrometeorological variables.

350 **7. Code and Data Availability**

351 All the employed code can be provided upon the request to the author of the current study. The
352 employed precipitation and temperature data over South Korea can be downloaded from the KMA
353 website http://www.kma.go.kr/weather/climate/past_cal.jsp .

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438



439 Table 1. Mean precipitation difference of the observed and simulated data for seasonal data over
 440 all the employed stations in South Korea in case of +1.0 °C mean temperature increase.

| Station | Mean Diff | | | | Station | Mean Diff | | | |
|---------|--|-------------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Winter | Spring | Summer | Autumn | | Winter | Spring | Summer | Autumn |
| 1 | 11.2 | 14.3 | 20.2 | -12.0 | 28 | 2.6 | 12.1 | 9.6 | -4.1 |
| 2 | 3.2 | 22.4 | 4.5 | 0.0 | 29 | 4.4 | 20.6 | 50.4 | -3.8 |
| 3 | 11.0 | 5.0 | 21.5 | -17.2 | 30 | 5.5 | 11.7 | 30.0 | -4.2 |
| 4 | 1.6 | 15.7 | 38.1 | -2.3 | 31 | 4.4 | 19.2 | 15.8 | -4.7 |
| 5 | 1.5 | 11.9 | 3.9 | -6.2 | 32 | 4.2 | 15.9 | 18.0 | -2.0 |
| 6 | 1.7 | 10.1 | 28.5 | -2.0 | 33 | 6.6 | 16.4 | 46.1 | -4.2 |
| 7 | 1.7 | 8.2 | 16.8 | -2.3 | 34 | 9.5 | 9.5 | 32.6 | -7.1 |
| 8 | 3.2 | 22.3 | 33.6 | -3.1 | 35 | 6.4 | 1.7 | 44.1 | -6.8 |
| 9 | 2.3 | 19.1 | 15.0 | -4.9 | 36 | 5.1 | -4.2 | 52.1 | -9.4 |
| 10 | 9.8 | 6.7 | 21.4 | -16.3 | 37 | 5.6 | 7.4 | 39.9 | -9.4 |
| 11 | 2.8 | 18.8 | 30.3 | -3.3 | 38 | 9.2 | -4.3 | 53.8 | -3.1 |
| 12 | 5.3 | 10.8 | 32.9 | -7.2 | 39 | 9.6 | -3.2 | 65.0 | -5.6 |
| 13 | 5.1 | 3.5 | 21.5 | -9.3 | 40 | 11.5 | -9.9 | 82.2 | -6.5 |
| 14 | 9.8 | 1.2 | 28.8 | -4.5 | 41 | 9.1 | 4.2 | 33.3 | -7.4 |
| 15 | 6.6 | -0.9 | 11.5 | -5.1 | 42 | 9.6 | -11.5 | 61.2 | -8.1 |
| 16 | 5.9 | -1.0 | 32.6 | -7.5 | 43 | 4.2 | 12.9 | 42.7 | -3.0 |
| 17 | 10.2 | -9.3 | 26.7 | 0.6 | 44 | 6.3 | 20.2 | 33.8 | -2.6 |
| 18 | 8.2 | -1.7 | 50.2 | -4.5 | 45 | 12.9 | 8.8 | 10.5 | -7.9 |
| 19 | 13.2 | -2.7 | 23.4 | 0.8 | 46 | 5.8 | 11.2 | 19.4 | -3.8 |
| 20 | 9.8 | -4.3 | 33.1 | -0.7 | 47 | 3.1 | 14.3 | 56.3 | -7.0 |
| 21 | 8.1 | -15.4 | 12.4 | -4.5 | 48 | 7.1 | -2.4 | 14.8 | -4.7 |
| 22 | 7.8 | -6.0 | 52.3 | -2.3 | 49 | 9.0 | 3.4 | 68.4 | -5.9 |
| 23 | 11.4 | -17.5 | 19.7 | -12.6 | 50 | 4.2 | 2.1 | 31.6 | -2.3 |
| 24 | 1.9 | 11.2 | 21.1 | 0.1 | 51 | 8.9 | 5.5 | 39.5 | -3.2 |
| 25 | 2.3 | 8.6 | 21.8 | -2.4 | 52 | 8.6 | 8.0 | 78.2 | -1.5 |
| 26 | 2.3 | 8.8 | 13.4 | 0.8 | 53 | 16.4 | 6.0 | 28.8 | -4.1 |
| 27 | 2.5 | 9.3 | 26.0 | -2.9 | 54 | 10.5 | 20.9 | 23.2 | 1.7 |
| | Mean confidence interval | | | | | ±5.38 | ±15.04 | ±29.94 | ±7.01 |
| | # of Significant Stations (percent) | | | | | 33 (61%) | 13 (24%) | 25 (46%) | 16 (30%) |

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445 Table 2. Confidence interval for mean precipitation difference of the observed and simulated data
446 for seasonal data.

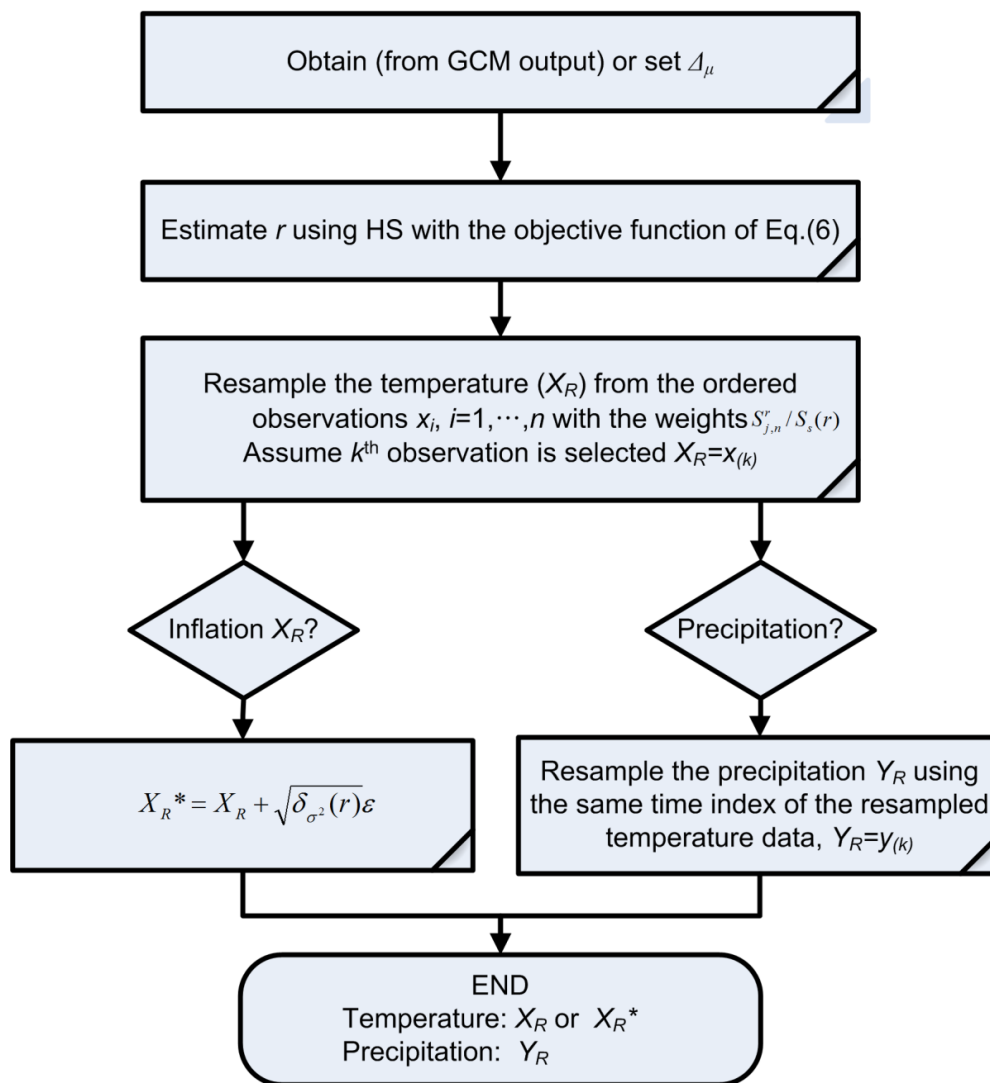
| Station | Winter | Spring | Summer | Autumn | Station | Winter | Spring | Summer | Autumn |
|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1 | 10.7 | 12.4 | 28.4 | 13.6 | 28 | 3.89 | 14.15 | 32.45 | 6.08 |
| 2 | 3.7 | 13.2 | 29.0 | 5.1 | 29 | 4.71 | 14.76 | 31.49 | 6.34 |
| 3 | 12.7 | 10.3 | 29.6 | 14.2 | 30 | 5.24 | 14.79 | 30.39 | 5.55 |
| 4 | 3.7 | 14.6 | 34.7 | 7.6 | 31 | 4.08 | 14.26 | 27.61 | 7.45 |
| 5 | 3.6 | 12.0 | 25.9 | 7.8 | 32 | 4.25 | 14.31 | 28.31 | 7.09 |
| 6 | 4.0 | 12.0 | 25.3 | 5.6 | 33 | 5.00 | 15.87 | 31.29 | 8.08 |
| 7 | 3.6 | 14.0 | 25.9 | 7.7 | 34 | 5.62 | 13.73 | 25.75 | 6.06 |
| 8 | 4.1 | 13.7 | 26.4 | 6.4 | 35 | 4.86 | 12.44 | 30.64 | 6.93 |
| 9 | 4.1 | 14.8 | 27.1 | 8.6 | 36 | 5.61 | 12.53 | 27.52 | 7.52 |
| 10 | 8.9 | 10.5 | 26.7 | 11.4 | 37 | 5.32 | 12.89 | 26.21 | 7.28 |
| 11 | 4.8 | 14.5 | 23.0 | 7.0 | 38 | 5.12 | 13.53 | 32.37 | 5.46 |
| 12 | 5.5 | 15.2 | 30.7 | 6.4 | 39 | 5.15 | 15.64 | 34.46 | 6.45 |
| 13 | 4.6 | 13.1 | 24.6 | 5.2 | 40 | 5.27 | 20.28 | 37.15 | 6.87 |
| 14 | 8.2 | 12.9 | 30.9 | 6.7 | 41 | 4.80 | 20.76 | 29.50 | 5.57 |
| 15 | 4.8 | 12.1 | 23.6 | 4.5 | 42 | 5.20 | 21.00 | 35.75 | 7.88 |
| 16 | 5.6 | 12.5 | 26.9 | 6.3 | 43 | 4.45 | 15.73 | 26.47 | 6.16 |
| 17 | 7.2 | 15.7 | 30.1 | 6.9 | 44 | 5.23 | 14.63 | 26.25 | 5.11 |
| 18 | 5.2 | 15.4 | 31.9 | 5.7 | 45 | 8.23 | 11.25 | 24.05 | 7.16 |
| 19 | 6.9 | 20.1 | 35.1 | 8.7 | 46 | 4.30 | 10.81 | 24.10 | 4.29 |
| 20 | 6.0 | 19.3 | 34.3 | 7.5 | 47 | 4.60 | 11.30 | 25.36 | 4.91 |
| 21 | 4.6 | 15.7 | 26.5 | 6.1 | 48 | 4.80 | 11.24 | 23.40 | 4.32 |
| 22 | 5.0 | 19.5 | 30.1 | 6.9 | 49 | 5.81 | 12.41 | 34.88 | 5.73 |
| 23 | 5.4 | 22.6 | 39.4 | 8.4 | 50 | 5.38 | 14.71 | 33.37 | 5.54 |
| 24 | 3.6 | 17.3 | 27.5 | 8.3 | 51 | 4.73 | 15.29 | 30.09 | 6.00 |
| 25 | 3.6 | 13.1 | 30.8 | 6.6 | 52 | 6.32 | 17.35 | 41.62 | 7.15 |
| 26 | 4.0 | 13.5 | 28.2 | 6.9 | 53 | 7.70 | 29.41 | 44.00 | 11.16 |
| 27 | 3.3 | 13.5 | 27.7 | 4.6 | 54 | 7.56 | 23.95 | 42.12 | 9.89 |

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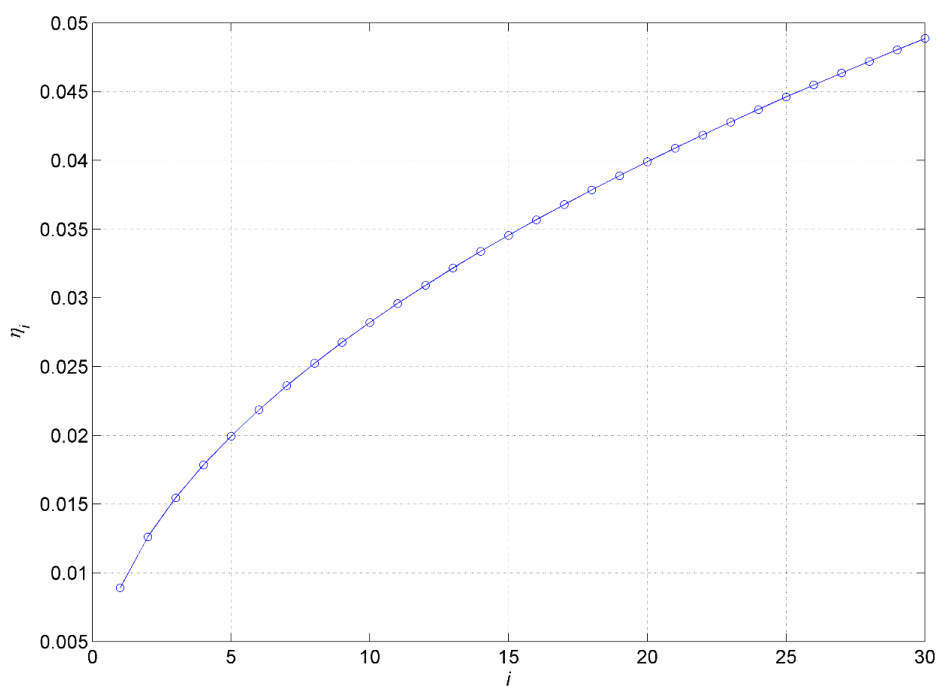
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451 Figure 1. Procedure for the proposed simulation IBB method of temperature and precipitation data.

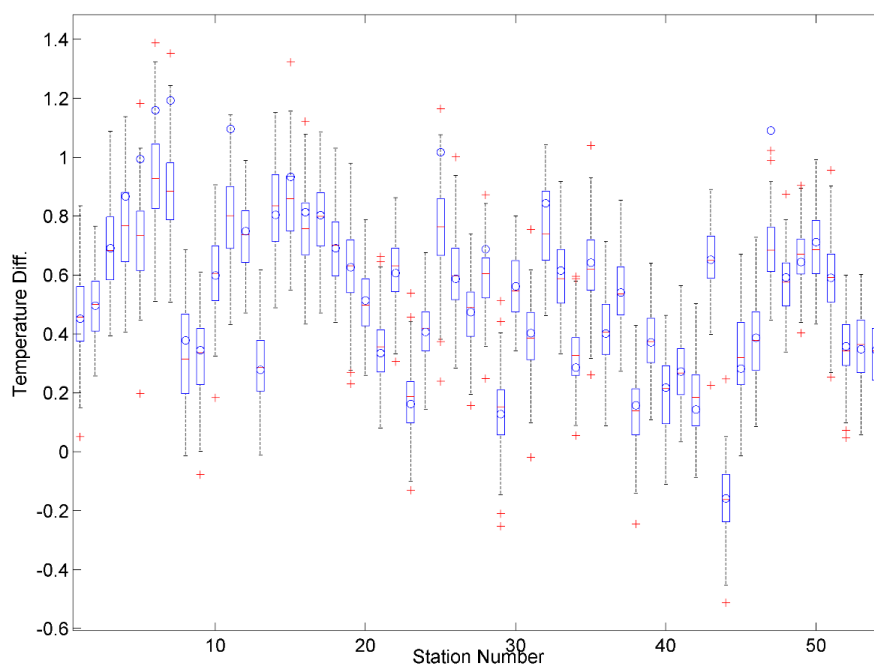
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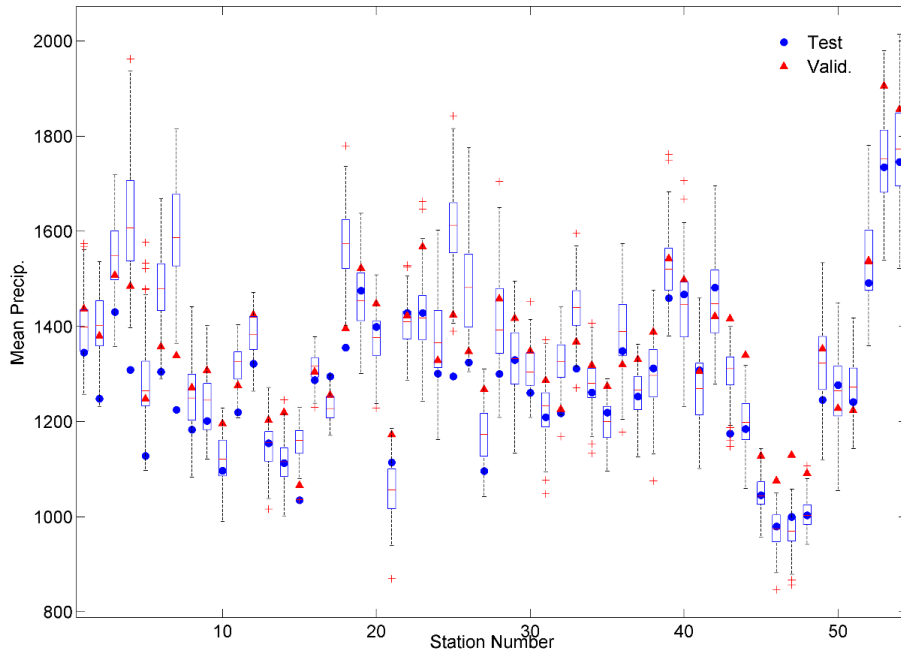
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454 Figure 2. Example of the adjusted scaled weights (η_i) vs. order numbers in the case of $n=30$ and
455 order weight $r=0.5$. Note that η_i is the probability of being selected and increases as the order is
456 increased, so that higher values are subject to being selected more often than are lower values,
457 leading to a positive bias.

458



459
460 Figure 3. Annual mean temperature difference between the validation period (1994-2008) and
461 the test period (1976-1993) for each station for the IBB simulated data (boxplot) and the
462 observed data (circle). Boxes indicate the interquartile range (IQR), and whiskers extend to +/-
463 1.5IQR. The horizontal lines inside the boxes depict the median of the data. Data beyond the
464 fences (+/-1.5IQR) are indicated by a plus symbol (+), which represent outliers.



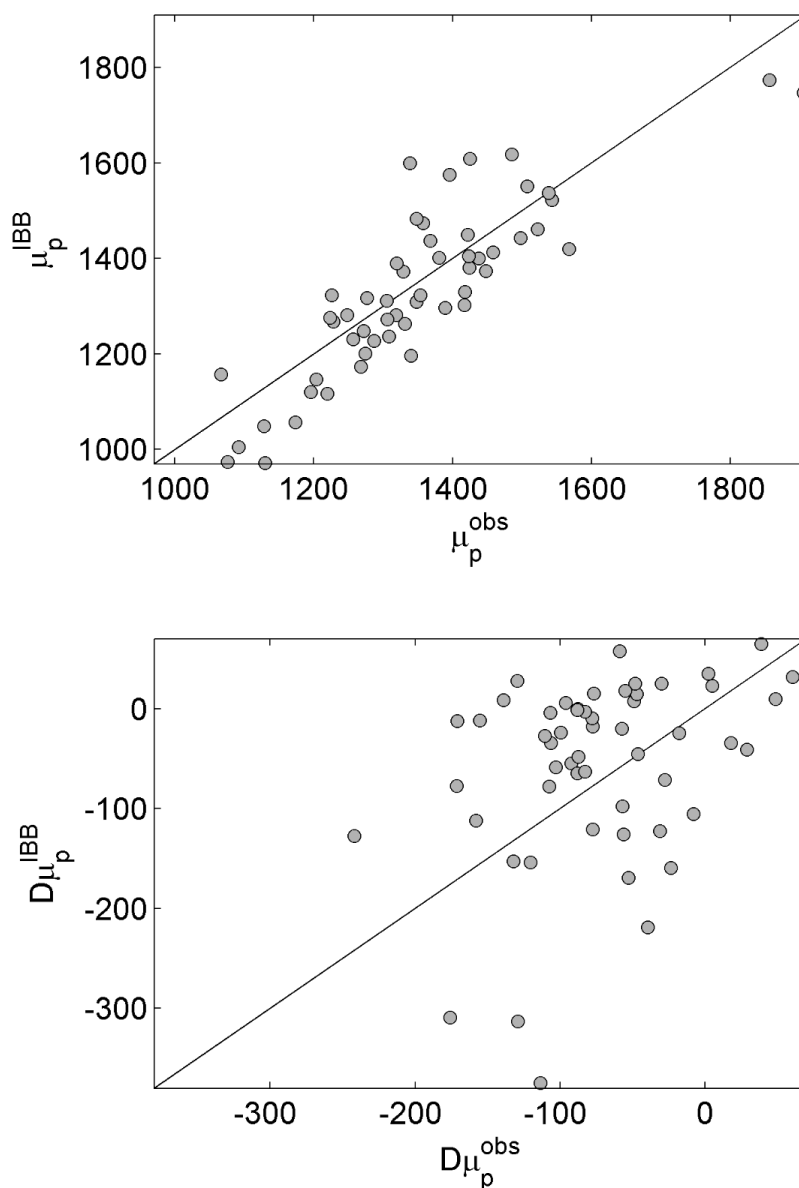
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466 Figure 4. Annual mean precipitation of the IBB simulation (boxplot) and the observation over the
467 validation period (filled blue circle) as well as the test period (filled red triangle) conditioned with
468 the temperature change (see Figure 3). Note that the observed mean precipitation over the
469 validation period (1994-2008) (see the red triangles) shows mostly higher than the mean over the
470 test period (1976-1993) (see the blue circles). Also, the IBB simulated precipitation (boxplot)
471 reflects this tendency showing higher than the mean precipitation of the test period (blue circles).
472 Boxes indicate the interquartile range (IQR), and whiskers extend to ± 1.5 IQR. The horizontal
473 lines inside the boxes depict the median of the data. Data beyond the fences (± 1.5 IQR) are
474 indicated by a plus symbol (+), which represent outliers.

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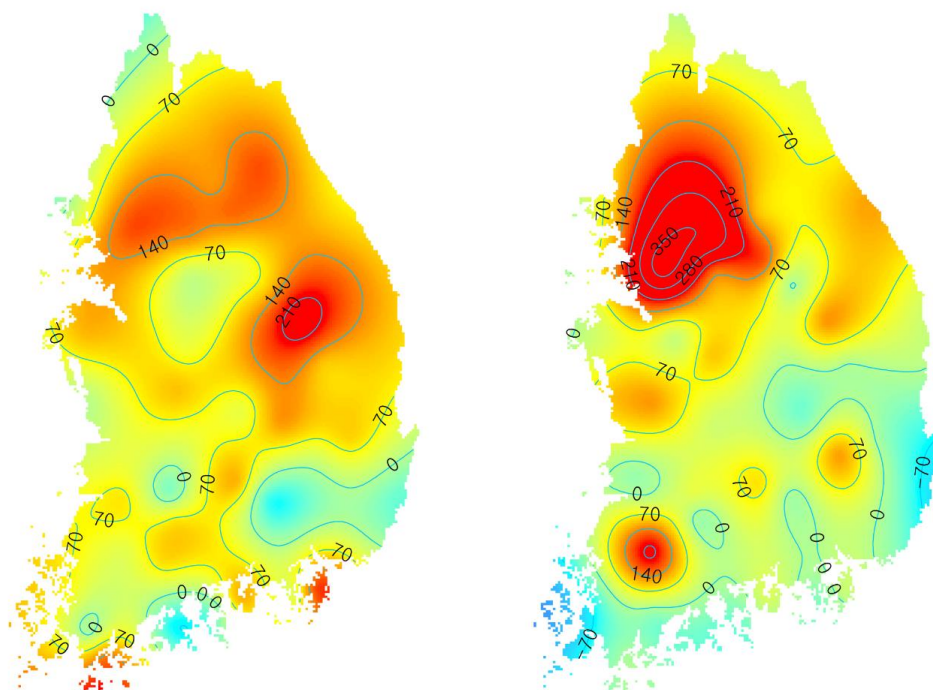
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478 Figure 5. Annual mean precipitation (top panel) during the validation period (1994-2008) and its
479 difference (bottom panel) with the test period (1976-1993) for the observed data (abscissa) and
480 the IBB simulated data (ordinate) over all the employed stations in South Korea. For more details
481 about the difference at the bottom panel, see Eqs. (12) and (13).



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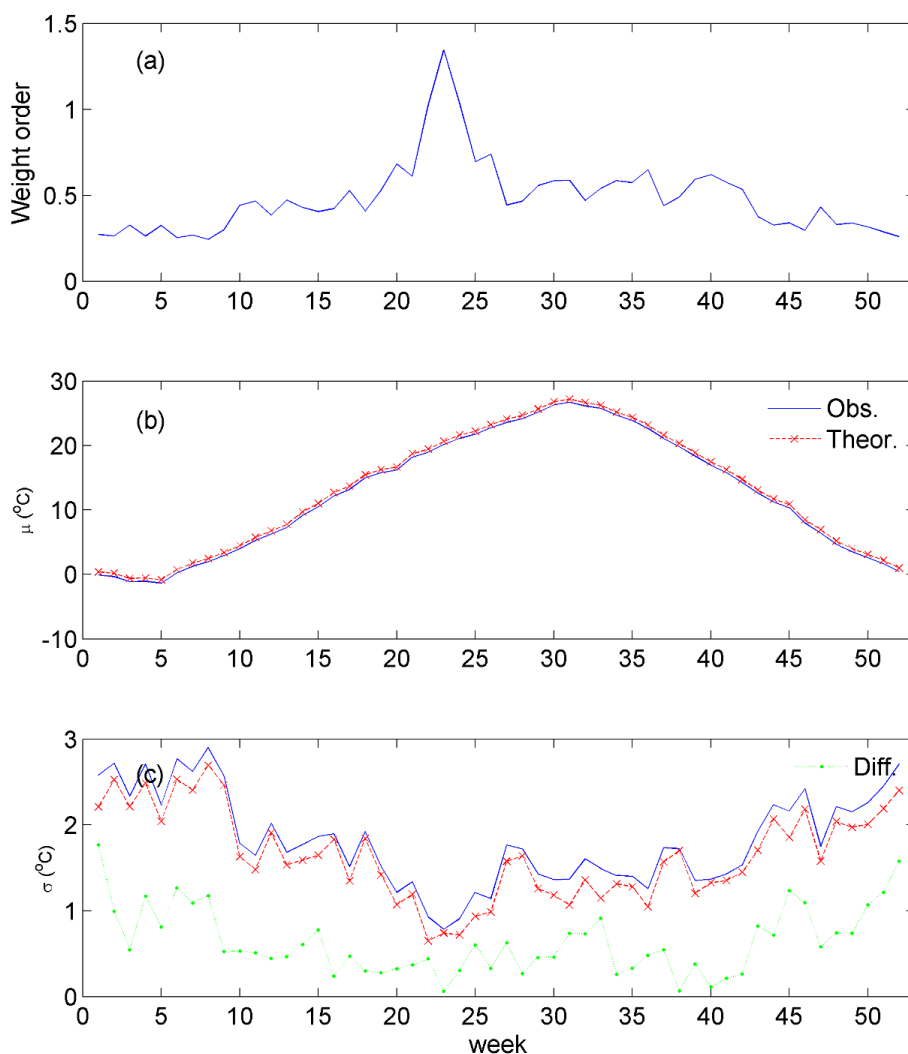


483

484 Figure 6. Spatial distributions of annual mean precipitation difference between the validation
485 period (1994-2008) and the test period (1976-1993) for the observed data (left panel) and the
486 IBB simulated data (right panel).

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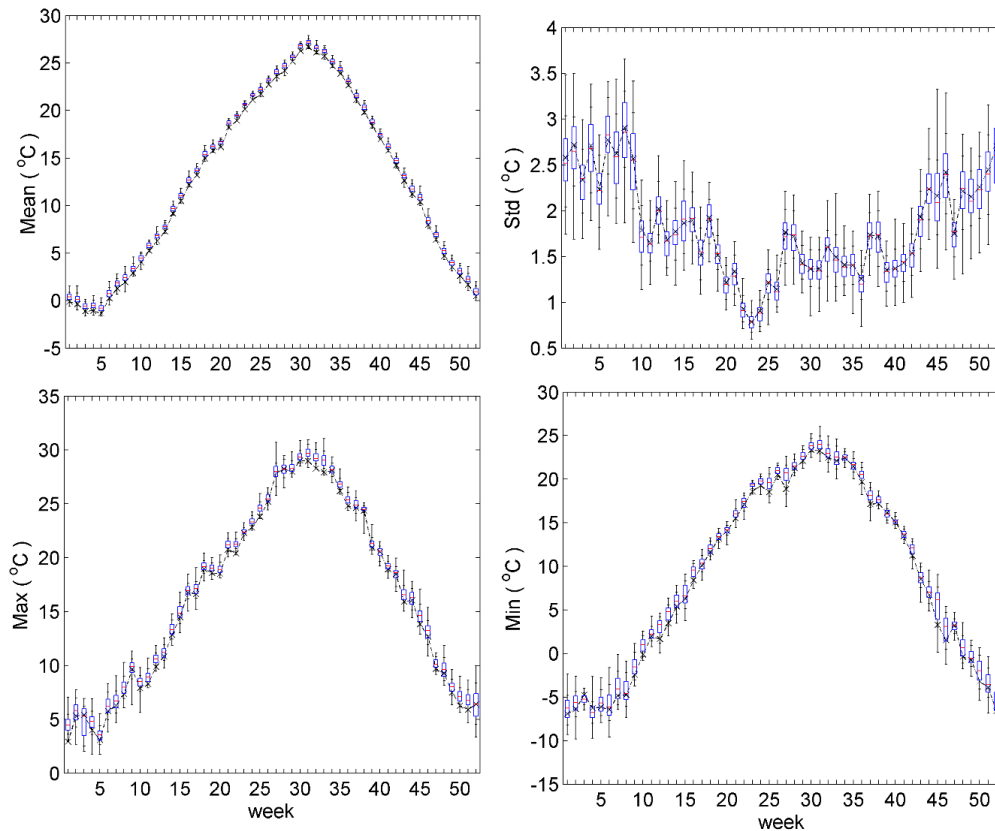
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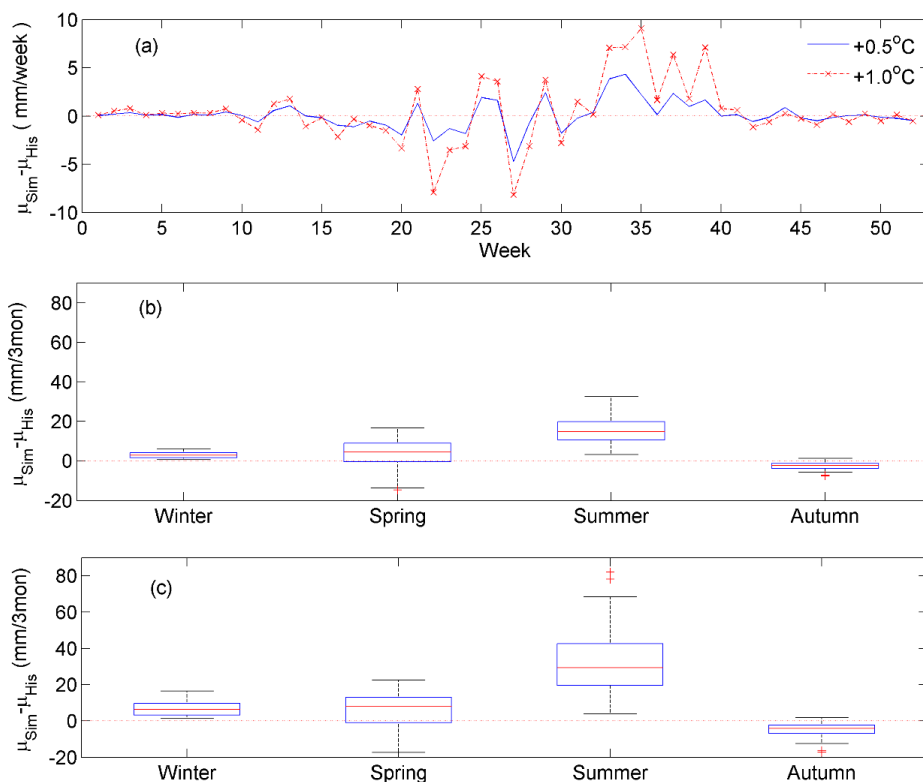
490 Figure 7. (a) Estimated weight order from HS and weekly statistics of (b) mean and (c) variance
491 for the observed temperature data (solid line) and the theoretical statistics (dashed line with cross)
492 using Eqs. (2) and (7) for Buan station. The weekly difference in variance between observation
493 and theoretical (see Eq. (8)) is shown in panel (c) by a dotted line.

494

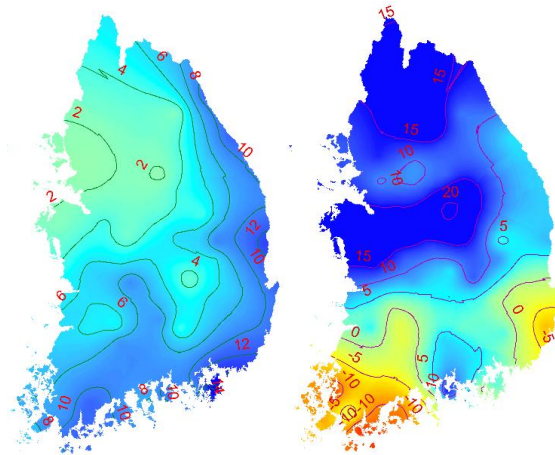


495
496 Figure 8. The statistics of the observed (dotted line with cross) and generated (boxplot) data for
497 the weekly mean temperature using IBB with a 0.5°C temperature increase in Buan, South Korea.
498 Boxes display the interquartile range (IQR), and whiskers extend to the extrema (i.e., maximum
499 and minimum). The horizontal lines inside the boxes depict the median of the data. Note that the
500 mean and maximum of the simulated data are increased significantly compared with the
501 corresponding observed data, while the minimum of the simulated data is slightly increased and
502 the standard deviation of the simulated data agrees with that of the observed data due to the
503 variance inflation, as in Eq. (9).

504



505
506 Figure 9. The mean precipitation differences of the observed and simulated data (a) for the weekly
507 precipitation in Buan with a 0.5°C mean temperature increase, (b) for the seasonal precipitation of
508 all 54 stations with a 0.5°C mean temperature increase and (c) for a 1.0°C mean temperature
509 increase. Note that indicates the mean of the simulated precipitation data for weekly (a) or seasonal
510 (b and c).
511

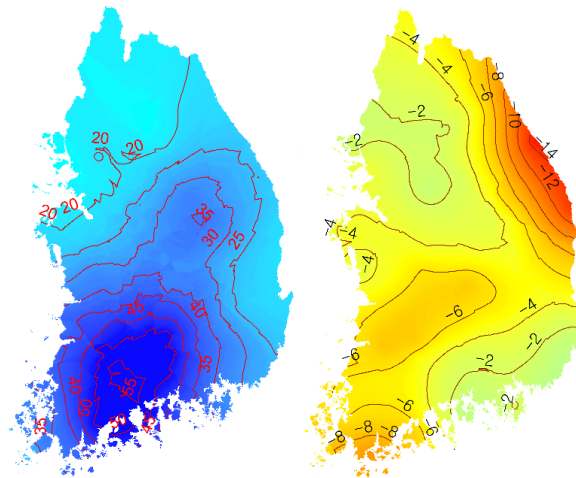


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(a) Winter

(b) Spring



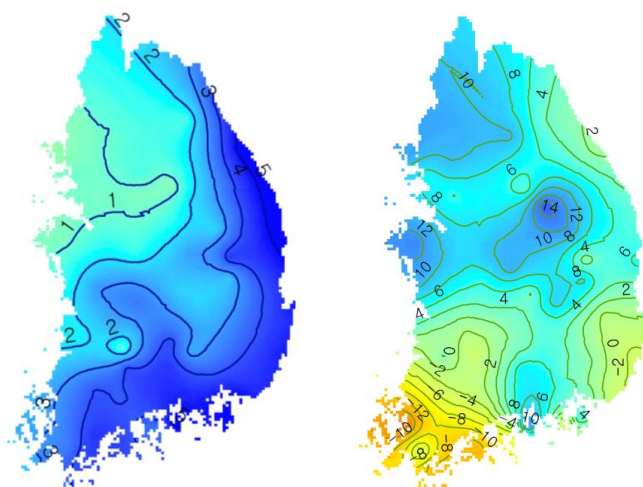
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(c) Summer

(d) Autumn

516 Figure 10. Spatial distributions in South Korea of the mean difference in seasonal precipitation
517 (mm) with a 1.0°C increase in mean temperature. Note that the scale for the summer distribution
518 is different from the other seasons, the 95% significance intervals are different at each station and
519 the mean values of the significance intervals are ± 5.38 , ± 15.04 , ± 29.94 , and ± 4.84 for Winter
520 (December, January, February), Spring (March, April, May), Summer (June, July, August), and
521 Autumn (September, October, November), respectively.

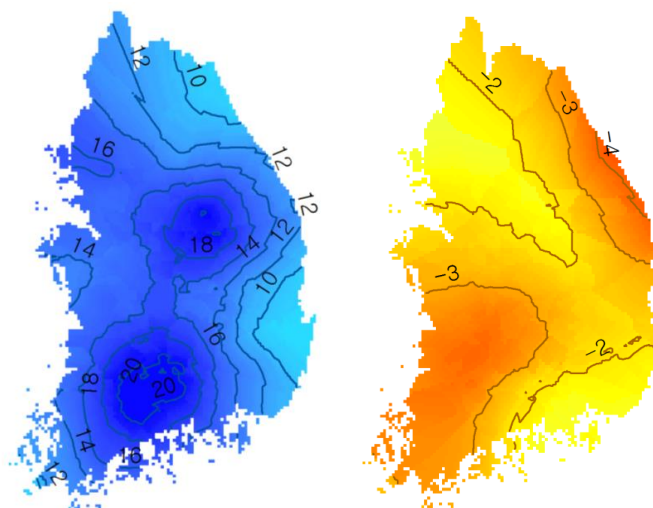


522

523

(a) Winter

(b) Spring



524

525

(c) Summer

(d) Autumn

526 Figure 11. Spatial distribution of mean difference of seasonal precipitation (mm) with 0.5°C
527 increasing mean temperature in South Korea. Note that the scale of summer is different from the
528 other seasons and the 95% significance intervals are different at each station and the mean values
529 of the significance intervals are ± 5.38 , ± 15.04 , ± 29.94 , and ± 4.84 for Winter (December, January,
530 February), Spring (March, April, May), Summer (June, July, August), and Autumn (September,
531 October, November) respectively.